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2	Inorganic fouling of an anaerobic membrane bioreactor treating leachate from the Organic
3	Fraction of Municipal Solid Waste (OFMSW) and a polishing aerobic membrane
4	bioreactor
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## Abstract

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27 The treatment of leachate (Average TCOD=11.97 g/L, 14.4% soluble) from the organic fraction of municipal solid waste was investigated using a Submerged Anaerobic Membrane BioReactor 28 29 (SAMBR), followed by an Aerobic Membrane BioReactor (AMBR) to polish this effluent. This paper investigated the exact nature and composition of the inorganic precipitate in each of the 30 31 reactors in the process. The flux decreased due to precipitation of calcium as monohydrocalcite 32 (CaCO<sub>3</sub>.H<sub>2</sub>O) containing traces of metals onto the SAMBR membrane because of high CO<sub>2</sub> 33 partial pressures. Precipitation of calcium in the AMBR was also observed due to a higher pH. In 34 this case, phosphorus also precipitated with calcium in two different phases: the background 35 layer contained calcium, oxygen, carbon and small amounts of phosphorus (2-6.7%), while flakes containing calcium, oxygen and higher amounts of phosphorus (10-17%) were probably 36 37 hydroxyapatite (Ca<sub>5</sub>(PO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub>OH).

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- 40 **Keywords:** Anaerobic digestion, Submerged Anaerobic Membrane Bioreactor (SAMBR),
- 41 Aerobic membrane bioreactor, landfill leachate, inorganic fouling.

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## 1. Introduction

loading rate than classical technologies (Stephenson et al., 2000), which combines in one unit the removal of COD, solids and nutrients, thus giving rise to a small footprint and a very high quality permeate with no suspended solids. Anaerobic MBRs have the added advantage of producing energy in the form of biogas, and produce very little excess sludge reducing the burden of sludge disposal. In a Submerged Anaerobic Membrane Bioreactor (SAMBR) the membrane is submerged within the reactor, and membrane cleaning is accomplished by

The main advantages of membrane bioreactors (MBR) include rapid start-up and a higher

recirculating the biogas as large bubbles underneath the membrane to scour it and alleviate biofouling. Several researchers have also achieved fouling reduction by gas sparging (Hong et al., 2002; Li et al., 2005), and other turbulence promoting techniques such as gas/liquid slug flow (Mercier-Bonin et al., 2001) or polymeric particles (Imasaka et al., 1989). However, fouling remains the main drawback of MBRs since it reduces flux through the membrane, and increases trans-membrane pressure (TMPs) drops. Nevertheless, fouling can enhance COD removal since the fouling layer acts as a secondary membrane and enhances the rejection of low molecular weight (MW) solutes.

Fouling can occur by: adsorption or deposition of macromolecules onto the membrane surface; by adsorption onto the pore surface; or, by complete pore-blocking. The phenomenon is exacerbated by concentration polarisation as it increases the concentration of macromolecules and particles in the vicinity of the membrane. Fouling can also be related to biological growth due to cell attachment and extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) filling the void spaces between the particles in the cake (Chu et al., 2005). Other fouling can be attributed to components in the feed such as proteins, colloids and particulate materials. Colloids cover a wide size range, from a few nanometers to a few micrometers, and can comprise clay minerals, colloidal silica, iron, aluminium, and manganese oxides, organic colloids and suspended matter, and calcium carbonate precipitates (Boussu et al., 2006; Mahvi & Razavi, 2005). Dissolved ions may also precipitate in the form of struvite which is an inorganic precipitate with the chemical formula: MgNH<sub>4</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O, and has been reported by several investigators as playing a key role in flux decline (Choo & Lee, 1996; Kang et al., 2002). Kang et al. (2002) reported that struvite was found to have accumulated inside the pores of a zirconia skinned inorganic membrane, but not in an organic polypropylene membrane. Choo and Lee (Choo & Lee, 1996) also found that struvite plays a significant role in the consolidation of biomass cakes on the membrane surface.

76 Struvite is expected to be a problem in MBRs treating municipal solid waste (MSW) or the 77 leachate because it contains all the elements required to form struvite. Struvite precipitation is also facilitated when the pH increases, and as a result acidic solutions are required to dissolve the 78 79 inorganic foulant (Kang et al., 2002). Other inorganic foulants in anaerobic environments can also include CaCO<sub>3</sub> polymorphs such as calcite, aragonite, vaterite, monohydrocalcite, ikaite and 80 81 amorphous calcium carbonate (in order of decreasing stability) (Meiron et al., 2011; Salek et al., 82 2016). However, the precipitation of inorganic salts can also be affected by module geometry 83 and membrane materials (Shih et al., 2005), and there is limited information on the effect of 84 these factors on fouling mechanisms. However, there is very little information available 85 describing inorganic fouling on membrane surfaces (Shirazi et al., 2010). 86 87 In the SAMBR, biogas is recirculated to scour the membrane surface which results in high CO<sub>2</sub> 88 partial pressures. Information about inorganic fouling under these conditions in a SAMBR 89 treating leachate from the organic fraction of municipal solid waste (OFMSW) is poorly 90 documented. This paper presents a detailed investigation into the fate of inorganics and dissolved 91 ions in a novel process treating OFMSW leachate, and identifies the inorganic foulants on the 92 membranes. 93 94 2. Materials and methods 95 2.1. Leachate from the Organic Fraction of Municipal Solid Waste (OFMSW) 96 The synthetic leachate used in this study was producing in a bench scale anaerobic reactor (20L)

- 97 from real components of Municipal Solid Waste: 41.3% kitchen wastes, 10.8% garden wastes
- 98 and 47.9% paper wastes on a wet basis as documented in a previous study (Trzcinski & Stuckey,
- 99 2009a). The leachate had the following properties: pH: 6-7.5, SCOD: 1,070-2,925 mg/L
- (average: 1,730 mg/L), TCOD: 5.72-26.78 g/L (average: 11.97 g/L), Volatile fatty acids: 155-100

1,290 mg/L as COD (average: 570 mg/L), Ammonia-nitrogen: 7-140 mg N/L (average: 44 mg 101 102 N/L), Phosphorus: 3.9-24 mg P/L as orthophosphates (average: 11 mg/L). 103 104 2.2. Membrane BioReactors (MBRs) 105 The Submerged Anaerobic Membrane BioReactor (SAMBR) was a three litre reactor fitted with a Kubota polyethylene flat sheet membrane of 0.1 m<sup>2</sup> of total surface and a pore size of 0.4 106 107 microns. The SAMBR was maintained at  $35 \pm 1$  °C, and details of the reactor and inoculation can 108 be found elsewhere (Trzcinski & Stuckey, 2009b). The SAMBR was fed continuously at organic loading rates in the range of 1-19.8 g COD·L<sup>-1</sup>·day<sup>-1</sup> (average: 8.1 g COD·L<sup>-1</sup>·day<sup>-1</sup>). 109 110 One pump was used to set a constant flux through the membrane, while some of the permeate 111 was recycled back to the SAMBR in order to set the hydraulic retention time (HRT). The biogas 112 sparging rate was set at 5 L/min (LPM) to minimize cake formation on the membrane. The 113 permeate from the SAMBR was fed to an Aerobic Membrane BioReactor (AMBR) for 114 polishing. The AMBR was identical to the SAMBR except that it was maintained at ambient 115 temperature (21-22°C), and was inoculated with aerobic biomass from a wastewater plant at an 116 initial MLTSS and MLVSS of 3 and 2.3 g/l, respectively, and air was used to mix the reactor 117 contents at 2 LPM. 118 119 2.3. Analytical methods 120 The measurement of pH (Jenway 3020 pH Meter) was accurate to within  $\pm 0.02$  units. The 121 measurement of Mixed Liquor Total Suspended Solids (TSS), Volatile Suspended Solids (VSS) 122 and Fixed Suspended Solids (FSS) was carried out weekly according to Standard Methods

(APHA, 2012). The coefficient of variation (COV) for ten identical samples was 4%, 3.1% and

analysis was carried out biweekly as in Standard Methods (APHA, 2012) after filtration through

7.1% for TSS, VSS and FSS, respectively. The Soluble Chemical Oxygen Demand (SCOD)

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126 a 0.45 µm filter (Sartorius, Minisart), and the COV for ten identical samples was 2.6%. Volatile 127 fatty acids (VFAs) were measured biweekly using a Shimadzu Gas Chromatograph with a flame-128 ionized detector and a SGE capillary column (12mx0.53mm ID-BP21 0.5µm); the COV was 3% 129 for ten identical samples. Ammonia-Nitrogen was measured biweekly using the Nesslerization 130 method by reading absorbance at 425 nm on a Shimadzu spectrophotometer; the COV was 6.6% 131 for 10 identical samples. The measurement of orthophosphates was carried out biweekly 132 according to the vanadomolybdophosphoric acid colorimetric method described in Standard 133 Methods (APHA, 2012). The absorbance was read on a spectrophotometer at 470 nm, and the 134 coefficient of variance for ten identical samples was  $\pm 0.6\%$ . 135 The method for alkalinity followed the procedure described in Standard Methods (APHA, 2012). 136 Weekly samples were titrated potentiometrically to an end-point of pH 4.5 with 0.1 N H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. 137 The COV for 10 identical samples was within 2.7%. The calculation of alkalinity is shown below: 138 Alkalinity as mg CaCO<sub>3</sub>/L =  $A \times N \times 50$ , 000/ mL sample where: A= ml standard acid used, N= normality of standard acid. The ions Na<sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, Mg<sup>++</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, 139 Cl<sup>-</sup>, PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup>, were analyzed weekly using an Ion Chromatograph (Dionex) as described by the 140 141 American Public Health Association (APHA, 2012). The COV for the ions listed above were 2, 142 0.2, 0.5, 0.6, 1.1 and 3.4 % for 5 identical samples, respectively. The detection limit was between 143 50 and 100 ppb. 144 Fouled membranes were analyzed by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and energy 145 dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectroscopy. SEM samples were fixed overnight at 4°C in 3% 146 glutaraldehyde and kept at pH 7.2 by a 0.1M phosphate buffer. Samples were then dehydrated in 147 a graded ethanol/water series (10-30-50-70-90-100%) for 20 minutes at each concentration, and 148 then dried for a day at 30 °C. Samples were sputtered-coated with gold or carbon (30mA for 2.5 149 minutes, vacuum 0.2 Torr) prior to SEM-EDX analyses. Specimens were examined and 150 photographed under a scanning electron microscopy (JEOL JSM-5610LV). Energy Dispersive

X-Ray analysis was conducted with an EDX-60 (Oxford instrument-incax-sight), and the EDX analyzer was connected to a scanning electron microscope (model JSM-840A). More than one point on the sample was analyzed by EDX. Powdered inorganic precipitates from the membranes were also analyzed using a Bruker AXS using X-Ray Fluorescence technology (XRF). The exact number of replicates is given along with the results.

A cleaning procedure adapted from (Akram, 2006) was performed in order to determine the

## 2.4. Membrane cleaning

relative contribution to fouling due to internal and external, organic and inorganic fouling of the SAMBR and AMBR membranes. The virgin membrane flux of a new Kubota membrane was determined by submerging it in distilled water under 1 meter of hydrostatic head. The flux,  $f_0$ , was determined in triplicate, and the average  $\pm$  standard deviation was  $f_0 = 251 \pm 6$  LMH. At the end of the experiment, the fouled membrane flux,  $f_1$ , was measured with distilled water under the same conditions as described. The flux,  $f_1$ , was the result of all fouling types, i.e. organic and inorganic, external and internal. The flux drop, FD1, due to all types of fouling was calculated as  $FD1 = f_0 - f_1$ .

The membrane was then cleaned using different methods and chemicals in sequence. Firstly, lukewarm water and a brush were used to remove the external organic fouling (biofilm) formed on the membrane, assuming that any inorganic foulants would not be removed by this technique due to their strong attachment. The measured flux,  $f_2$ , was then the residual flux due to combined internal and external inorganic fouling. The flux drop, FD3, due to internal and external inorganic foulants was then calculated as  $FD3 = f_0 - f_2$ . The flux drop due to organic external foulants, or biofilm alone (FD2), was obtained as FD2 = FD1 - FD3.

The membrane was then soaked in 1% sodium hypochlorite for 2 hours to remove external and internal organic foulants, and the flux was recorded as  $f_3$ . The flux drop due to inorganic foulants only was then calculated as  $FD4 = f_0 - f_3$ . Finally, the membrane was soaked in 1% oxalic acid for 2 hours to remove inorganic foulants, and the flux was recorded as  $f_4$ .

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## 3. Results and discussion

181 3.1. Contribution of SAMBR and AMBR to overall COD removal in leachate 182 The AMBR was started up at MLTSS and MLVSS concentrations of 3, and 2.3 g/L, 183 respectively, and was fed with the stabilized leachate, i.e. the permeate from SAMBR2. Hence 184 the feed contained no suspended solids. Figure 1 shows the contribution of both the SAMBR and 185 AMBR to the total COD removal from the OFMSW leachate at various HRTs from 5 days 186 during the start-up down to 0.4-0.6 days. The COD removal in the SAMBR was in the range of 187 89.7-98 % (Average: 94.5%), while the total COD removal increased into the range of 92.2-188 98.4% (Average: 96.1%) due to the polishing action of the AMBR. The results demonstrated the 189 excellent resilience of the SAMBR to organic shocks at loading rates as high as 19.8 g COD·L 190 <sup>1</sup>·day<sup>-1</sup>, and HRTs as low as 0.4 days. Between 13.6% and 50.8% (Average: 26%) of the 191 SAMBR permeate COD was degraded in the AMBR. This illustrates the refractory nature of the 192 SAMBR permeate.

- 194 3.2 Effect of the HRT on Flux and pH in the AMBR
- The pH in the AMBR started at 7.25 but then rapidly increased to 8.5 on day 4 and then remained in the range 8.2-8.75 at all tested HRTs (Figure 2). The feed to the AMBR was saturated in CO<sub>2</sub> because biogas was used in the SAMBR for mixing and scouring purposes. Due to air sparging in the open AMBR, the CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure dropped leading to lower dissolved

CO<sub>2</sub> according to Henry's Law. As a result of CO<sub>2</sub> stripping the carbonic acid equilibrium shifted which caused the pH to rise.

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The flux was found to decrease gradually from 3.5 LMH to 1.3 LMH towards the end of the study indicating that considerable membrane fouling took place (Figure 2). It was found that dissolved inorganic salts started to increase in the AMBR bulk, as evidenced by the mixed liquor Fixed Suspended Solids (MLFSS) that increased from 0.7 g/L to 1.9 g/L during the study (Supplementary material S1). Moreover, the MLVSS/MLTSS decreased accordingly from 76% to 45% during the course of the study (Supplementary material S1) indicating a decrease in organic content of the suspended solids in the AMBR. In contrast with the organic shocks experienced in the SAMBR, the AMBR was found to experience inorganic shocks when the HRT was reduced and this led to accumulation of dissolved solids in the bulk. Figure 2 also shows that the flux in the AMBR was decreasing over time. Therefore, it is very likely that calcium carbonate precipitating on the membrane was causing the flux to drop. Visual inspection of the membrane indicated a hard, off-white, chalky deposit similar to limescale, and contact with a drop of HCl provoked an immediate fizzing. Precipitation was also found to occur in the permeate tubing; a sample was taken, rinsed with plenty of water and then dissolved in deionized water with HCl. It was then filtered though a 0.2 micron filter and analysed on the ion chromatograph which confirmed that the main element was calcium.

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3.3 Change in dissolved ion concentration in the process

High salt levels can cause bacterial cells to dehydrate due to osmotic pressure, and Na<sup>+</sup> is more toxic that any other salt on a molar basis. It is also known that cations determine the toxicity of salts (McCarty & McKinney, 1961). Sodium, potassium, magnesium, calcium, phosphate and sulphate are present in the influent of anaerobic digesters, and they are all required for microbial

growth. Moderate concentrations stimulate microbial growth, but excessive amounts can cause inhibition or toxicity (Soto et al., 1993). Very little data is available for full-scale plants as ions are not systematically measured to assess the health of anaerobic digesters.

Ion concentrations in the feed (OFMSW leachate), SAMBR permeate and AMBR permeate were monitored to investigate the health of the process, as well as the fate of ions in the process and the possibility of precipitation. The concentrations of NH<sub>4</sub>+, Na<sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>, PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup> are plotted against time in Figure 3. The concentration of NH<sub>4</sub>+ was relatively low in the OFMSW

leachate, as most of the nitrogen was still in the proteinaceous form. The NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentration increased significantly in the SAMBR permeate due to protein degradation to ammonia under

anaerobic conditions. In the AMBR, ammonia concentration was virtually zero as it was shown

in a previous study that nitrification took place in the AMBR (Trzcinski & Stuckey, 2009b).

In this study, the AMBR started with a sodium concentration over 1.5 g Na<sup>+</sup>/L due to Owen et

al.'s biomedium (1979) added for the start-up, but over time the concentration stabilized to about

600 mg Na<sup>+</sup>/L; this decrease could be due to sodium uptake for bacterial growth. In contrast,

there was a slight increase in Cl<sup>-</sup> and K<sup>+</sup> concentrations during the study.

Excessive amounts of calcium can lead to the precipitation of carbonate which may result in the scaling of reactors (Chen et al., 2008). It has been reported in the literature that calcium concentrations in a real landfill leachate could be as high as 976 mg/L (Zayen et al., 2008). Initially, calcium concentrations were in the range 20-60 mg/L, and the levels were similar in the feed and both permeates suggesting that no precipitation occurred in the system. However, as the level started to increase to 160 mg/L in the feed, significantly lower concentrations were observed in both permeates showing that a loss of dissolved calcium occurred in the process. It

was therefore clear that calcium carbonates were precipitating in the SAMBR or on its membrane.

High levels of magnesium and phosphate are not recommended because they can precipitate as struvite (NH<sub>4</sub>MgPO<sub>4</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O). Because phosphate concentrations are usually lower than ammonia and magnesium in an anaerobic digester, they will determine whether struvite precipitates or not. The magnesium level remained between 100 and 200 mg/L in all the reactors, and then increased to 200-250 mg/L in the OFMSW leachate and the two permeates. In fact, the  $Mg^{2+}$  concentration was always slightly higher in the two permeates showing that it could not have precipitated to form struvite as it was not removed from the liquid phase.

Phosphates ( $PO_4^{3-}$ ) were found at a relatively low concentration in the feed and effluents, except in the AMBR that started up at about 140 mg/L, presumably due to the level in the inoculum and initial biomedium. The concentrations in the feed and permeate were then stable in the range of 20-40 mg/L, showing that it was not removed from the liquid phase. Using the solubility product it is possible to predict if struvite can precipitate. The maximum concentration of  $NH_4^+$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$  and  $PO_4^{3-}$  in this study were 161, 246 and 25 mg/L, respectively, and the negative logarithm of the solubility product ( $pK_{S}=-\log K_S$ ) was equal to 7.6 which is lower than that of struvite which is in the range 12.6 - 13.3 (Ohlinger et al., 1998). Thus in the present study, struvite did not precipitate because of the low concentrations of phosphate, ammonia and magnesium, and the neutral pH. This was confirmed by Stratful et al. (2001) who noticed that no struvite precipitation occurred at pH 7 with concentrations of magnesium, ammonium and orthophosphate equal to 187, 266 and 742 mg/L, respectively, while only a minute amount was produced at pH 7.5.

This study suggests, therefore, that struvite precipitation is unlikely when treating a leachate from real components of the organic fraction of municipal solid waste such as garden, kitchen and paper waste; however, calcium is more likely to cause problems. In fact, direct treatment of leachate containing calcium in an anaerobic membrane bioreactor should be avoided due to inorganic precipitation on the membrane. Calcium precipitation should be carefully controlled in a location (a separate precipitation unit) where it does not adversely affect the membrane filtration process. Moreover, this research also demonstrated that CO<sub>2</sub> could be sequestrated in the SAMBR by mineral carbonation. This offers an interesting option to remove CO<sub>2</sub> from the biogas and increase its calorific value (Salek et al., 2016).

3.4 Change in alkalinity in the process

In theory the alkalinity should not change because the net reaction involving CO<sub>2</sub> stripping in the AMBR removes the same number of equivalents of negatively contributing species (H<sup>+</sup>) as positively contributing species (HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>). However, the precipitation of calcium carbonate has a strong influence on alkalinity; it will remove Ca<sup>2+</sup> and CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> from solution, and CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> will decrease the alkalinity by 2 times its molar concentration. Precipitation of calcium carbonate was observed in our system, and the decrease in alkalinity was confirmed by titrating the feed, SAMBR permeate and AMBR permeate. The alkalinity in OFMSW leachate was around 2,000-3,000 mg eq. CaCO<sub>3</sub>/L, except on day 67 where it reached 5,000 mg eq. CaCO<sub>3</sub>/L. The SAMBR and AMBR permeates were found to contain less alkalinity, in particular around day 67 when it dropped to 2,250 and 750 mg eq. CaCO<sub>3</sub>/L, respectively (Figure 1, bottom). Borzacconi et al. (1999) have also observed that calcium ions can precipitate as CaCO<sub>3</sub> at a pH around 8. The maximum concentration of calcium before precipitation can be predicted using the solubility product assuming that the interference of other ions can be neglected. If 4.47·10<sup>-9</sup> is taken for K<sub>sp</sub> (Seely, 2008; Weast, 1963), the maximum solubility of Ca<sup>2+</sup> in the AMBR is about 3.1 mg/L at

pH 8.5. Furthermore, this value shows a quadratic dependence with the concentration of H<sup>+</sup> so that the maximum Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentration is 100 times greater at pH 7 than at pH 8. In the SAMBR at 35°C, the pH was 7 but the partial pressure of carbon dioxide was 0.2 atm (assuming 20% CO<sub>2</sub> in the headspace), and hence the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the liquid phase is 5.24·10<sup>-3</sup> M according to Henry's law. The solubility of calcium at pH 7 is normally around 2,850 mg/L, but because of the high partial pressure of carbon dioxide the solubility in SAMBR2 was only about 5.1 mg/L. Thus precipitation can also occur in the SAMBR as well as in the AMBR if the calcium concentration is greater than these theoretical values.

3.5 Identification of the inorganic precipitate on the SAMBR membrane

Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) was used to investigate the morphology and structure of the inorganic precipitate found on the SAMBR membrane which appeared as a homogeneous layer with little apparent porosity. This technique was coupled to Energy-Dispersive X-rays (EDX) in order to determine the chemical composition of the precipitate, although the inaccuracy of the technique increases with inhomogeneous and rough samples. Four sites were scanned, and the weight percentages of the four spectra are given in Table 1 along with the theoretical weight percentage of known minerals containing calcium: anhydrous calcium carbonate or calcite, dolomite, monohydrocalcite and ikaite. Although very close to one another, the four spectra showed some variability as indicated by the percentages varying within 4%, and there was co-precipitation with magnesium and iron. In fact, gold (Au) from the sample preparation was found to interfere with Phosphorus (P) in the elemental chromatograph because both elements peak at 2 keV.

Some carbon and oxygen could also be attributed to dissolved organic matter; this means that the oxygen percentage actually due to calcium carbonate could be overestimated. However, dolomite

is unlikely to have precipitated because of the low percentage of magnesium in the unknown sample compared to the 13% theoretically present in dolomite. Calcite (an anhydrous form of calcium carbonate) did not match well due its lower carbon and higher calcium content compared to the sample, while the hydrated forms of calcium carbonate, such as monohydrocalcite, had a better match. Nonetheless, these forms contain hydrogen that cannot be detected by the EDS technique. As a result, the percentage could be overestimated because they do not take hydrogen into account. Further analysis using X-Ray Fluorescence technology (XRF) (Table 2) provided a very similar percentage of calcium (~28%), but with a much smaller statistical error. The analysis also showed that impurities such as phosphorus, silicon, magnesium, iron, sulphur, potassium, manganese and aluminium co-precipitated, but most importantly, the analysis revealed that 29% of the sample was inorganic, and hence 71% was organic (C, O and H). By comparing this with the last column in Table 1, it was found that the mineral with the closest organic content was indeed monohydrocalcite with 66%. This small discrepancy could be due to dissolved organic matter trapped within the precipitate. Furthermore, monohydrocalcite is known for its bizarre occurrences, which include inside the otoliths of the tiger shark, the bladder of a guinea pig (Catherine et al., 1977), and the final stages of decomposition of the putrefying flesh of the giant saguaro cactus (Garvie, 2003); these occurrences suggest a biochemical origin is possible. In biological systems, some authors have reported that the precipitated minerals were related to the bacterial metabolism and, consequently, could be considered biologically induced (Gonzalez-Munoz et al., 2008). Amino acid metabolism results in the release of ammonia and CO<sub>2</sub> that increase the pH and CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> concentration, creating an alkaline environment that favours monohydrocalcite precipitation. This precipitation may also be related to heterogeneous nucleation on negatively charged points of biological structures, and these functional groups are able to attract positive ions such as Ca<sup>2+</sup>. In aerobic granules, Zhou et al. (2013) characterized the

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calcium compounds and tested by energy dispersive X-ray and X-ray diffraction (XRD) the accumulation of calcium carbonate and certain magnesium compounds as Ca<sub>7</sub>Mg<sub>2</sub>P<sub>6</sub>O<sub>24</sub>. Mañas et al. (2011) discovered calcium deposit in the inner part of aerobic granules as hydroxyl-apatite (Ca<sub>5</sub>(PO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub>(OH)). Juang et al. (2010) cultivated stable granules from continuous-flow reactors and noted that large amounts of phosphates and hydroxides of calcium and iron were formed in the granules to enhance the granule stability. In an anaerobic membrane bioreactor, Lin et al. (2011) reported that the cake layer on the membrane was formed by organic substances and inorganic elements such as 71.67% C, 9.03% O, 4.45% Ca, 1.94% Mg, 1.72% Al, 1.46% Si, 0.15% K, etc, but the low percentage of Calcium indicates that fouling was more organic in nature.

These studies suggest strongly that a biofilm on the membrane of the SAMBR could have triggered the precipitation of monohydrocalcite. Moreover, as the concentration of humic acids is greater near the membrane in the concentration polarization layer, it is very likely that calcium will form aggregates on the membrane because of the higher density of negatively charged solutes near the membrane.

3.5 Identification of the inorganic precipitate on the AMBR membrane

SEM-EDX was also used to investigate the morphology and structure of the inorganic precipitate found on the membrane in the AMBR. Compared to the SAMBR membrane, the precipitate was much more heterogeneous with a rougher surface. Several random points on the samples were analyzed by EDX, and all the spectra contained calcium, oxygen and phosphorus (2-6.7%) as the main elements, with traces of metals (Fe, Al, Mg, Si, S, Na, Cl, Mn) (Table 3). It was found that calcium could precipitate in two different phases; a background precipitate made of small nodules, or as long and sharp flakes of about 70 microns growing in bundles and pointing upwards. The former phase contained small amounts of manganese, iron, magnesium,

372 manganese, silicon, aluminium, sulphur, chloride and sodium (<1% by weight), whereas the flakes contained almost no impurities, which indicates that the flakes were in a purer form than the background (Table 3). Moreover, the flakes were characterized by significantly higher amounts of phosphorus (10-17%) compared to the background (2-6%). Chesters (2009) obtained 376 very similar SEM pictures with flat needles which he assumed to be hydroxyapatite crystals. Unfortunately, as the samples were coated with carbon to avoid interferences when using gold coating, the carbon percentage was not available. Spectra of the flakes varied within a wide range of calcium (19-59%), oxygen (31-64%) and phosphorus (10-17%) making its identification particularly difficult. Several potential known minerals are listed in Table 3 with their Ca, O and P composition for comparison. Nonetheless, it is very likely that the background precipitate was comprised of calcium carbonate containing many impurities. The calcite background may have acted as nucleation spots for the formation of other amorphous calcium carbonate clusters. Occurrence of nucleation on the calcite seed surface as a secondary nucleation site is a well accepted mechanism (Salek et al., 2016). With respect to the flakes, their high P content suggests a calcium phosphate precipitate, instead of calcium carbonate, such as calcium hydrogen phosphate (or brushite CaHPO<sub>4</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O,  $K_{sp} = 10^{-6.69}$ ), dicalcium phosphate anhydrate (CaHPO<sub>4</sub>,  $K_{sp} = 10^{-6.9}$  (Montastruc, 2003)), amorphous calcium phosphate ( $Ca_3(PO_4)_2$ ,  $K_{sp} = 10^{-24}$  (Mamais et al., 1994)), octacalcium phosphate (Ca<sub>4</sub>H(PO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub>·2.5H<sub>2</sub>O,  $K_{sp} = 10^{-49.6}$  (Montastruc et al., 2003)), hydroxyapatite  $(Ca_5(PO_4)_3OH, K_{sp} = 10^{-46.8} (Barat et al., 2008))$  or carbonated hydroxyapatite  $(Ca_{10}(PO_4)_6(CO_3)_x(OH)_{2-2x},\,K_{sp}<1\cdot 10^{-100}\;(Ito\;et\;al.,\,1997)).\;Furthermore,\;the\;same\;authors$ (Montastruc et al., 2003) found that both dicalcium phosphate dihydrate, and amorphous calcium phosphate, can crystallize at a pH lower than 7.3, and only amorphous calcium phosphate at a pH higher than 7.3. However, calcium phosphate precipitation follows the Ostwald rule, which

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states that the least thermodynamically stable phase is the first one formed, which works as a precursor of the most stable phase (Montastruc et al., 2003). In this case, carbonated hydroxyapatite would be the least thermodynamically stable phase forming on the calcium carbonate background as a precursor for a more stable calcium phosphate. Several authors reported that the presence of phosphates inhibits calcite growth due to the adsorption of phosphates on the calcite surface, which enables the formation of calcium phosphates (Lin & Singer, 2005; Plant & House, 2002; Shintaro & Keisuke, 2012). Although it is a metastable phase with respect to calcite and aragonite, monohydrocalcite (CaCO<sub>3</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O) is a better adsorbent than calcite and aragonite due to its greater surface area (Shintaro & Keisuke, 2012). This is in line with Kim et al. (2007) who observed low levels of residual PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3</sup>-, and they attributed this to calcium that might preferentially react with orthophosphates to produce hydroxyapatite, dicalcium phosphate or octacalcium phosphate. In abiotic batch adsorption tests, Shintaro and Keisuke (2012) showed that at low phosphate concentrations, phosphate was removed by sorption of phosphate during the transformation of monohydrocalcite to calcite, but at high concentrations (>10.6 mg/L), amorphous calcium phosphate (Ca<sub>3</sub>(PO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>·xH<sub>2</sub>O) was likely to be formed.

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Borzacconi et al. (1999) also observed that calcium can form complexes with organic matter, orthophosphates and polyphosphates, which will diminish the phosphorus available for the microorganisms or even for struvite. Sindelar et al. (2015) also reported that dissolved organic carbon and phosphorus can co-precipitate with calcium at high pH.

Le Corre et al. (2005) and Doyle and Parsons (2002) observed that calcium ions can affect struvite crystal growth, and leads to the formation of an amorphous calcium phosphate. This

study confirmed that struvite precipitation did not occur because the available phosphates

precipitated with calcium on the membrane, keeping the solution undersaturated with respect to struvite.

From all these considerations, and from the light shed by other authors, it seems very likely that the background precipitate was amorphous calcium carbonate, and the presence of phosphates inhibited its growth due to the adsorption of phosphates, which enabled the formation of calcium phosphates. The low level of impurities in these flakes suggests a mineral with a more crystalline structure such as hydroxyapatite which is the most stable calcium phosphate.

3.6 Quantification of flux drop due to inorganic fouling

At the end of the study, a cleaning procedure (Akram, 2006) was performed in order to determine the relative contribution to fouling due to internal and external, organic and inorganic fouling in the SAMBR and AMBR; Table 4 documents the contribution of each component of fouling. The flux drop due to an organic biofilm alone (FD2) was obtained by subtracting FD1 (due to combined internal, external, organic and inorganic fouling) and FD3 (external inorganic layer and internal fouling). It can be seen that 98% of the clean water flux from the SAMBR membrane was lost because of the combined effects of all types of foulants, i.e. external, internal, organic and inorganic foulants. The flux f<sub>2</sub> (without the external biofilm removed by a sponge and hot water) was only 13.6 LMH, which means that 94% of the flux drop was due to external inorganics combined with internal fouling. This indicates that in the SAMBR the external organic fouling or biofilm (FD2) played a minor role in total fouling of the SAMBR (less than 4%). In contrast, the flux drop (FD2) due to external organic fouling or biofilm on the AMBR membrane accounted for 30% of the total flux drop (FD1), indicating that adhesion of bacteria onto the AMBR membrane was more pronounced.

Afterwards, the membrane was chemically cleaned in a 1% sodium hypochlorite solution for 2 hours to remove all organic foulants. These include organics left on the external surface and organic foulants inside the membrane pores. The flux  $f_3$  recovered after this cleaning was only  $43 \pm 1$  LMH, which is considerably lower that the initial flux, and suggests that organic material played a minor role in the internal and external fouling. In fact, the total flux drop due to inorganic fouling regardless of internal or external material (FD4) can be calculated by subtracting  $f_3$  from  $f_0$ , which gives 208 LMH. Data in Table 4 also showed that inorganic fouling accounted for 83% and 32% of the total flux drop in the SAMBR and AMBR, respectively. This confirmed that precipitation of inorganics took place preferentially in the SAMBR due to high  $CO_2$  partial pressures and high calcium concentrations.

The membrane was then soaked in a 1% oxalic acid solution (pH<2) for 2 hours in an attempt to remove inorganic foulants, as recommended by the membrane manufacturer. After 2 hours soaking the flux measured afterwards was only 60 LMH, suggesting severe inorganic fouling which would require longer soaking times and stronger chemicals. We then attempted to use 1% hydrochloric acid for 2 hours, and then 1% hydrochloric acid with 1% sodium hypochlorite for 4 hours. The first cleaning attempt resulted in a flux of 94 LMH, while the last one resulted in a flux of 106 LMH.

Similarly to the SAMBR membrane, the original flux in the AMBR membrane could not be completely recovered, even with hydrochloric acid instead of oxalic acid. However, the flux after HCl cleaning was 183 LMH which was still lower than the 250 LMH of the virgin membrane. Using both the hydrochloric acid and the sodium hypochlorite solutions at 1% for 2 hours resulted in a flux of 211 LMH, indicating that some residual fouling could be due to a close

471	association of organics and inorganics. The fact that it was easier to clean the AMBR membrane
472	also indicates that fouling in the AMBR was less severe, which is in line with Table 4.
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474	4. Conclusions
475	A Submerged Anaerobic Membrane BioReactor (SAMBR) and a polishing Aerobic Membrane
476	BioReactor (AMBR) achieved 96% COD removal at low HRTs of 0.4 days during the anaerobic
477	treatment of leachate. However, calcium (160 mg/L) in the leachate was found to precipitate on
478	the SAMBR membrane causing severe fouling, and the precipitate was found to be
479	monohydrocalcite. It was found that calcium precipitated in two different phases in the AMBR:
480	the inorganic layer on the membrane consisted of nodules of calcium carbonate with traces of
481	phosphorus. On top of this layer grew flake shaped precipitates made of pure hydroxyapatite
482	$Ca_{5}(PO_{4})_{3}(OH)$ .
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485	Supplementary materials
486	Details of the inorganic precipitates can be found in electronic annex.
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